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GRAMMAR FOR THINKERS

IN THE EIGHTH GRADE

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—BY—

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INTRODUCTION.

This book was prepared for the next to the last year in the Grammar School. It is assumed that the pupils have already learned to recognize the eight Parts of Speech. They may be reviewed with the aid of sections 40, 66, 82, 95, 101, 106, 108 and 109.

The book does not take the place of continued practice in the speaking and writing of good English. Technical Grammar is a study in Logic. Its first value is as a drill in accurate thinking. Later on it will enable the student to *know* what form of a word is correct, instead of guessing what form "sounds right." Meanwhile, Grammar ought to be found to be stimulating and interesting for its own sake. To accomplish this, the pupil must study out every lesson *for himself*. Being told by the teacher is useless; the mere reciting of words is worse. He must *think*, until he understands. If he does this, he will enjoy the study, and at the end of the year he will be ready to take up advanced Grammar and Rhetoric, or any foreign language.



GRAMMAR FOR THINKERS

In the Eighth Grade.

I.

ANALYSIS.

§1. **LANGUAGE** is a means of showing thoughts.

Note.—All creatures seem to use a *Natural* Language. How does a bird show its thoughts and feelings? A kitten? A dog? A monkey?

Only Human beings use *Verbal* Language. The more intelligent the man, the more accurately does he speak and write. The most highly civilized races have the best languages. The *English* Language is one of the noblest of all languages.

§2. *All verbal language is made up of Sentences.*

A SENTENCE is a group of words that shows a thought about something.

The first letter of a sentence is a Capital.

Read a paragraph from your History, and count the sentences.

§3. A DECLARATIVE Sentence shows the thought as a statement.

It ends with a Period.

Example.—The class is quiet.

Count the Declarative sentences in §7.

§4. An IMPERATIVE Sentence shows the thought as a command.

It ends with a Period.

Example.—Be quiet.

Count the Imperative sentences in §7.

§5. An INTERROGATIVE Sentence shows the thought as a question.

It ends with an Interrogation Point.

Example.—Is the class quiet?

Count the Interrogative sentences in §7.

§6. An EXCLAMATORY Sentence shows the thought with sudden or strong emotion.

It ends with an Exclamation Point.

Example.—How quiet the class is!

Count the Exclamatory sentences in §7.

- §7. a. Their hearts throb with excitement.
 b. The minute-men faced the British.
 c. Hang your hat on the peg.
 d. Do you know the meaning of *study*?
 e. He hates our sacred nation!
 f. Abraham Lincoln was a poor boy.
 g. People sometimes call Boston "The Hub."
 h. Nero was very cruel to the early Christians.
 i. Snow-flakes, which are frozen vapor, show many beautiful forms.
 j. The coward denied that he did it.

§8. Every sentence has a SUBJECT and a PREDICATE.

(In an Imperative Sentence the subject is usually implied.)

§9. The SUBJECT of a sentence shows what the thought is about.

It is a noun or its equivalent.

§10. The **PREDICATE** of a sentence shows what is thought about the subject.

It is a verb or contains a verb.

Read the (complete) Subject and the (complete) Predicate of each sentence in §7. In *c*, the subject is implied; what is it?

§11. *Some verbs can not, by themselves, form predicates, but need other words to COMPLETE the sense. There are three kinds of such COMPLEMENTS.*

§12. An **OBJECT COMPLEMENT** is a noun or its equivalent, which names what receives the action shown by the verb.

Example.—Cats catch mice.

Write the Object Complements in §7.

§13. An **OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT** is a noun or an adjective, which completes the verb and describes the object complement.

Examples.—They made the ship strong.

They called the ship the **Kearsarge**.

Write the Objective Complements in §7.

§14. An **ATTRIBUTE COMPLEMENT** is a noun or an adjective which completes the verb and describes the subject.

Examples.—The ship is strong.

The ship is called the **Kearsarge**.

Write the Attribute Complements in §7.

§15. The **GRAMMATICAL**, or **SIMPLE**, Subject and Predicate are the bare noun and verb, with complements if any, which form the essential parts of the sentence.

Write the Grammatical Predicates in §7.

§16. The **LOGICAL**, or **COMPLETE**, Subject and Predicate are the Grammatical Subject and Predicate, together with all the words, phrases and clauses that modify them.

§17. A **PHRASE** is a group of words used like a single word.

In Grammar, a Phrase is a preposition and its accompanying word.

Select the (prepositional) phrases in §7.

§18. A (dependent) **CLAUSE** is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate, but used like a single word.

Example.—Men that are honest are respected.

Select the (dependent) clauses in §7.

§19. An **ADJECTIVE WORD, PHRASE** or **CLAUSE**, is one that is used like an adjective.

§20. An **ADVERBIAL PHRASE** or **CLAUSE** is one that is used like an adverb.

§21. A **SUBSTANTIVE WORD, PHRASE** or **CLAUSE** is one that is used like a noun.

Example.—They wished that he would come.

Tell the kind (adjective, adverbial or substantive) of each phrase and clause in §7.

§22. *ANALYSIS* means "a taking apart in order to examine." To Analyze a sentence is to separate it into its parts, showing the subject and the predicate, and the use of every other word, phrase or clause.

§23. The following *Outline* indicates a good arrangement for the analysis of sentences:

1. *Kind of Sentence.*
2. *Grammatical Subject.*
3. *Grammatical Predicate (Complements if any).*
4. *Modifiers of Subject.*
5. *Modifiers of Predicate.*
6. *Complete Subject and Complete Predicate.*

§24. Following the above *Outline*, analyze the sentences in §7, like this *Model*:

"The brave soldiers obeyed the command of their captain."

1. *This is a declarative sentence (because it shows a thought as a statement).*
2. *The Grammatical Subject is SOLDIERS (because it shows what the thought is about).*
3. *The Grammatical Predicate is OBEYED COMMAND (because it shows what is thought about soldiers). OBEYED is the verb, and COMMAND is the Object Complement (because it names what receives the action).*
4. *SOLDIERS is modified by the adjective words, THE and BRAVE.*
5. *COMMAND is modified by the adjective word, THE, and by the adjective phrase, OF THEIR CAPTAIN.*
6. *The Complete Subject is THE BRAVE SOLDIERS, and the Complete Predicate is OBEYED THE COMMAND OF THEIR CAPTAIN.*

§25. Analyze the following sentences :

- a. Nature hates peeping.
- b. The clouds have faces.
- c. A gentleman makes no noise.
- d. A lady is serene.
- e. Wonderful is the charm of Beauty.
- f. Hitch your wagon to a star.
- g. The mountain and the squirrel had a quarrel.
- h. The former called the latter little prig.
- i. You cannot recall the spoken word.
- j. Flowers and fruits are always fit presents.

Notes.—What word in *e* is very emphatic, and what makes it so?

In *g*, notice the grammatical subject carefully; also in *j*. Each may be called a *compound subject*.

- §26. a. The famous Alexandrine library was burned by zealots.
- b. In the analysis of a sentence, think, think, think.
 - c. Why will people exaggerate so?
 - d. Madam de Stael calls beautiful architecture frozen music.
 - e. Every stalk and bud and flower displays a beautiful harmony.

- f. Coal of all kinds has originated from the decay of plants.
- g. Both friend and foe applauded.
- h. By the streets of By and By, one arrives at the house of Never.
- i. The mountains are grand, tranquil, and lovable.
- j. Benjamin Franklin invented the lightning-rod.

Note.—Call *was burned*, in *a*, a single verb.

§27. An **APPOSITIVE** is an adjective modifier that explains or emphasizes the noun or pronoun modified, and names the same person or thing.

If it consists of more than one word it usually is set off by commas.

Example.—Washington, **the first President**, was a Virginian.

Select the appositives in §28.

§28. Analyze the following, *thinking* but not *reciting* the reasons.

- a. "Evangeline," a tale of Acadia, was written by Longfellow.
- b. Pride in dress or beauty betrays a weak mind.
- c. Sheridan himself was in the charge.

- d. Æsop, the author of Æsop's Fables, was a slave.
- e. Living toads are sometimes found in the middle of huge rocks.
- f. The second President, John Adams, lived in Quincy.
- g. Clouds are collections of vapor in the air.
- h. An ostrich outruns an Arab's horse.
- i. William the Conqueror invaded England in 1066.
- j. Hark! Do ye not hear it?

Notes.—i. Call *William the Conqueror*, one noun.

j. Call *hark* an interjection.

- §29. a. He went a private, and came back a captain.
- b. The Gulf Stream can be traced along the shores of the United States by the blueness of its waters.
 - c. The first observatory in Europe was erected at Seville by the Saracens.
 - d. The hero of the Book of Job came from a strange land and of a strange parentage.
 - e. The apple tastes and smells delicious.
 - f. Polonius thought Hamlet really insane.
 - g. Socrates styled beauty a short-lived tyranny.

- h. The highest outcome of culture is a simple city
- i. They saluted him as chief.
- j. The analysis of a sentence depends on its meaning as well as its form.

Notes.—Select all the conjunctions in above, and think what they connect.

a. See §14.

j. Call "*as well as*" one conjunction. What single word could be substituted?

§30. A VERBAL is a form of a verb that is not used as a predicate.

It is used as a noun, an adjective, or a phrase.

A verbal may have a complement, like a true verb.

Examples.—**Drawing** trains the hand.

The map, **drawn** on the black-board,
showed the position of the armies.

Are you able **to draw** a circle?

Select the verbals in §31, and think how each is used.

§31. Analyze the examples in §30, and the following sentences:

- a. Truth, crushed to earth, will rise again.
- b. Facts learned in youth are often remembered in old age.
- c. A fault confessed is half redressed.

- d. The Puritans desired to obtain religious freedom.
- e. To live is not the whole of life.
- f. Dr. Franklin was sent to France to solicit aid for the Colonies.
- g. The Romans, having conquered the earth, were unable to conquer themselves.
- h. Sheridan, hearing the guns, galloped from Winchester to take command.
- i. In fancy I see the farmers chasing the red-coats down the road, pausing only to fire and load.
- j. God moves in a mysterious way, his wonders to perform.

Notes.—In *c*, what part of speech is *half*?

In *d*, *to obtain* is a verbal phrase; how is it used?

In *f*, what does *to solicit* modify? Then what kind of verbal phrase is it?

In *i*, there is a *compound* phrase.

Analyze:

- §32. a. Always take time to do your best.
- b. His friends grieved to hear of his failure.
- c. It does not pay to worry.
- d. By invariably speaking the truth, you will command esteem.
- e. India-rubber is the thickened juice of a tree growing in South America.

- f. Thousands flocked to Jerusalem to hear Him.
- g. Is not a miser to be pitied?
- h. Having one's own way does not always insure happiness.
- i. The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars, but in ourselves.
- j. Up rose old Barbara Frietchie then,
Bowed with her fourscore years and ten.

Notes.—(a) What does the verbal phrase “to do” modify? Think, “*what to do?*”

(c) “*To worry*” is a verbal phrase used as an appositive.

(g) “*To be pitied*” performs what office in the sentence?

(i) “*Brutus*” is used independently.

(j) “*Years*” is modified by a *compound* adjective expression.

§33. A SIMPLE SENTENCE shows a single thought; it has only one subject and one predicate.

Example —Josephine is a good scholar.

§34. A COMPLEX SENTENCE shows a principal thought and a subordinate thought.

It contains a (dependent or subordinate) clause.

Example.—Josephine is a good scholar because she studies hard.

Note.—In analyzing complex Sentences, be very careful to distinguish the principal *Proposition* from the subordinate

clause. After analyzing the former, analyze the clause as if it were a simple sentence. Analyze the above example.

§35. A COMPOUND SENTENCE shows two or more independent thoughts, which are joined together.

It contains two or more subjects and predicates.

Example.—Josephine is a good scholar, and she is always good-natured.

Analyze:

- §36. a. Farmers make hay while the sun shines.
 b. He who conquers himself is a true hero.
 c. "Labor conquers all things" is an old maxim.
 d. We know that Whitney invented the cotton-gin.
 e. Where thou goest, I will go.
 f. The house where Shakespeare lived still stands.
 g. We get silk from a caterpillar, which is called the silk-worm.
 h. The sugar-cane is pressed between heavy rollers until all the juice runs out.
 i. The boy stood on the burning deck,
 Whence all but him had fled.

- j. He who ascends to mountain tops shall
find
The loftiest peaks most wrapt in clouds
and snow.

Note.—*What, who, that, etc., are connectives, serving to introduce the clauses.*

§37. a. If ye love me, keep my commandments.

b. Every art was practiced to make them
pleased with their own condition.

c. My soul is an enchanted boat.
Which, like a sleeping swan, doth float
Upon the silent waves of thy sweet sing-
ing.

d. We are going to Chicago to visit some
friends.

e. "Will you walk into my parlor?"
Said the spider to the fly.

f. There was a little boy, named Ned.

g. Work while the day lasts.

h. To see such happiness makes one glad.

i. If you have nothing sensible to say, keep
quiet.

j. He who by usury increaseth his substance,
shall gather it for him that will pity the
poor.

Notes.—(f) What is the grammatical subject?

"*There*" is merely an "introductory word." A verbal adjective may have an attribute complement.

§38. A compound sentence is like two or more simple sentences; each proposition is analyzed as if it were a simple sentence.

- a. The sun rises, and the fogs disappear.
- b. Prosperity makes friends, but adversity tries them.
- c. A man perfects himself by working.
- d. Who is this man, and what does he want?
- e. The mosquito is our deadly enemy; and is he not a very troublesome one?
- f. Power works easily, but fretting is a perpetual confession of weakness.
- g. The many make the household,
But only one, the home.
- h. The avalanche came rushing down the mountainside, and the boy was in its path.
- i. There is no death; what seems so is transition.
- j. Thus, to relieve the wretched was his pride,
And even his failings leaned to virtue's side

Notes.—g. Supply a word.

i. The last subject is a clause.

j. What does *Thus* connect?

- §39. a. Now fades the glimmering landscape on
the sight,
And all the air a solemn stillness holds.
- b. Recollect that trifles make perfection, and
that perfection is no trifle.
- c. Mountain and lake and valley a sacred
legend know.
- d. Whene'er a noble deed is wrought,
Whene'er is spoken a noble thought,
Our hearts in glad surprise
To higher levels rise.
- e. I slept and dreamt that life was Beauty;
I woke and found that life was Duty.
- f. Count that day lost whose low-descending
sun
Views from thy hand no worthy action
done.
- g. Oh! did we but know when we are happy!
- h. We know what Master laid thy keel,
What workmen wrought thy ribs of steel.
- i. John Ericsson had lately completed his in-
vention of the turret ship; and a few
hours after the *Merrimac's* victory the
famous *Monitor* appeared in Hampton
Roads.
- j. The face you wear, the thoughts you
bring,
A heart may heal or break.

II.

PARSING.

§40. A NOUN (derived from the Latin word "nomen," meaning a "name") is a word used as a name for a person or a thing.

Examples.—John, boy, city, Boston.

§41. A COMMON NOUN is a word used as a name common to several persons or things.

Examples.—boy, city.

§42. A PROPER NOUN is a word used as a name, the especial property of some one person or thing.

It is written with a Capital.

Examples.—John, Boston.

§43. A COLLECTIVE NOUN is a word used as a name for a number of persons or things, collected in one whole.

Examples.—school, company.

§44. An **ABSTRACT NOUN** is a word used as a name for a quality, considered apart from any object to which it may belong.

Examples.—redness, wisdom, beauty.

§45. A **VERBAL NOUN** is a form of a verb used as a noun.

Examples.—loving, drawing, to study.

§46. **EXERCISE.** State the *class* of each *noun* in §38 and §39, and the reason.

Example.—boy is a **common noun**, because it is a name common to several persons (or things).

§47. **GENDER** is a distinction in nouns (and in pronouns), which corresponds to the sex of the person or thing named.

§48. Words used to name males are of the **MASCULINE GENDER**.

Examples.—John, boy.

§49. Words used to name females are of the **FEMININE GENDER**.

Examples.—Mary, girl.

§50. Words used to name things that are neither male nor female, are of the NEUTER GENDER.

Examples.—house, stone.

Note.—Words, like *child*, *cat*, *pupil*, that may name either males or females, are sometimes called *Common* in Gender. In sentences, the meaning usually is evident; when it is not, it is as well to say nothing about the gender.

§51. EXERCISE. Write in separate columns the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter Nouns in §32, omitting any whose gender you can not tell.

§52. GENDER FORMS. *Two words that mean the same except for the sex of the person or thing named, are called different forms of the same word. Sometimes the two forms are really different words; but often the Feminine is formed by adding ESS or some other syllable to the Masculine.*

Examples.—boy, girl; author, authoress; actor, actress.

§53. EXERCISE. Write the feminine forms of the following nouns, and explain the formation of as many as you can:

host, Jew, waiter, hero, enchanter, tiger, Louis, Joseph, papa, brother, negro, king, steward, man.

Note.—You can find all these if you think long enough. Do not ask to be told.

§54. **NUMBER** is a distinction in nouns (and in pronouns), which corresponds to the number of persons or things named. When a noun (or pronoun) names only one person or thing, it is in the **SINGULAR NUMBER**; when it names more than one it is in the **PLURAL NUMBER**.

§55. **PLURAL FORMS**. (a) *Most nouns form their plurals by adding s to the singular.* (b) *Nouns ending in s, sh, ch, or x, and some nouns ending in y, o, or f, form their plurals by adding ES to the singular. In such cases the y is changed to i, or the f to v.* (c) *Many nouns have irregular plurals.*

Notes.—Some nouns have no singular, some have no plural, and some have the same form for both numbers.

§56. Write the **PLURALS** of the following nouns, and be ready to recite the rules for each:
river, dish, box, hero, studio, day, study, loaf, deer, Detroit, scissors.

§57. **CASE** is a distinction in nouns (and in pronouns), which depends on their use in the sentence. There are three cases, the **NOMINATIVE**, the **POSSESSIVE**, and the **OBJECTIVE**.

§58. *CASE FORMS.* The Nominative and the Objective forms of a noun are the same. The Possessive is formed by adding 's (an apostrophe and s) to the Nominative, except the Possessive of plurals ending in s, which omits the last s.

§59. *DECLENSION* is an orderly statement of the number and case forms of a noun (or pronoun).

Examples.—

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>boy</i>	<i>boy s</i>
<i>Poss.</i>	<i>boy's</i>	<i>boy s'</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	<i>boy</i>	<i>boy s</i>

§60. Write the declension of the nouns in §56.

§61. *RULES FOR CASE.* A noun or a pronoun used as the subject or attribute complement of a predicate verb, is in the **NOMINATIVE CASE**.

A noun or a pronoun used as an object complement, or objective complement, or as the object of a preposition, is in the **OBJECTIVE CASE**.

A noun or a pronoun used as an adjective modifier, showing possession, source or fitness, is in the **POSSESSIVE CASE**.

Note.—A Possessive is equivalent to a phrase. Thus, "the cat's fur" means "the fur of the cat."

An appositive is in the same case as the word that it explains.

§62. To *PARSE* a word is to give an orderly statement of its class, form, and use in the sentence.

The following *OUTLINE* indicates a good arrangement for parsing a noun:

1. *Class.*
2. *Gender.*
3. *Declension.*
4. *Number.*
5. *Case.*
6. *Use.*

§63. Following the above outline, parse in full the nouns in §25 and §26, like this model:

"The boy ate the apple." APPLE is a common noun (because it is a name common to several things). It is neuter gender (because it means something neither male nor female). Declined:

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>apple</i>	<i>apple s</i>
<i>Poss.</i>	<i>apple 's</i>	<i>apple s'</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	<i>apple</i>	<i>apple s</i>

It is in the singular number (because it names only one thing). It is Objective case, being object complement of ATE.

§64. ADDITIONAL RULES FOR CASE.

(a) A noun or a pronoun used, alone or with another word, absolutely independent of the rest of the sentence, is called **NOMINATIVE INDEPENDENT** or **NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE**.

Examples.—Rover, come here. (Nominative Independent.)

Rover coming, we walked along.
(Nominative Absolute.)

(b) A noun or a pronoun showing toward what an action is directed, is an **INDIRECT OBJECT**.

Examples.—Give Rover a bone.
Ask him a question.

(c) A noun used as an adverb, is called an **ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE**.

Examples.—Rover has run two miles.
He is going home.

§65. Following this model, parse briefly the nouns in §27 and §29, and in the examples in §64.

PRIVATE is a common noun, Masculine, Singular, Nominative, Attribute Complement of WENT.

§66. A **PRONOUN** (Latin “pro,” meaning “for,” and “nomen,” meaning “noun”) is a word used instead of a noun.

Examples.—we, you, them, who.

Note.—Pronouns have Number, Gender and Case, the same as nouns.

§67. PERSON is a distinction in pronouns (and sometimes in nouns), which shows their relations to the speaker. Pronouns (or nouns) representing the speaker, are of the FIRST PERSON; those representing persons spoken to, are of the SECOND PERSON; those representing persons or things spoken of, are of the THIRD PERSON.

§68. PERSONAL PRONOUNS show by their form whether they are of the First, Second, or Third Person. They are I (THOU), YOU, HE, SHE, and IT.

EXERCISE. Tell the person and gender of each personal pronoun.

§69. *Note.*—You should study out this exercise for yourself. If you master it *without help*, you may know that you will be able to learn Latin or any other language; if you can not do this, it is because you have not yet learned to study well.

THE DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS is irregular. Write for yourself the declensions of all the personal pronouns, and then commit them to memory.

Note.—If you make a sentence like this, “John took Mary’s book,” you have nouns in the Nom-

inative, Possessive, and Objective cases. Now, imagine that John speaks;—the sentence becomes, “I took Mary’s book.” Imagine that Mary speaks;—the sentence becomes, “John took **my** book.” Imagine that the book speaks;—the sentence becomes, “John took **me**.” If you make all the nouns plural, so as to be “The boys took the girls’ books,” and imagine that the boys speak first, then the girls, and then the books, you will find the pronouns to be, **we**, **our**, and **us**. If you use such sentences as, “The book is Mary’s,” and “The books are the girls’,” in which the noun modified by the Possessive is omitted, you will find the Possessive forms, **mine** and **ours**. Now write all these forms in order, like this:

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom.	I	we
Poss.	my (or mine)	our (or ours)
Obj.	me	us

You can work out the declensions of **you**, **he**, **she**, and **it**, in a similar way. The old form, **thou**, is declined as follows:

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom.	thou	ye
Poss.	thy (or thine)	your (or yours)
Obj.	thee	you

§70. COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS need not be declined, as they have the same form in the Nominative and Objective, and are not used in the Possessive. They are formed by adding **self** to some form of a simple personal pronoun.

Examples.—myself, himself, yourself.

§71. Parse all the personal pronouns in the sentences that you have analyzed.

Note.—Follow the same outline as for a noun, except that the *person* must be stated after the *class*.

§72. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS are used in questions. They are **who**, **which**, and **what**.

Note.—*Who*, *which* and *what* are not always interrogative pronouns, even when found in interrogative sentences. You must consider what is the *asking word*. Think whether the question would be answered by the noun for which the pronoun stands.

§73. *DECLENSION of Interrogative Pronouns.*

What, like compound personals, is not declined. **Who** is declined thus:

Singular and Plural.

Nom.	who
Poss.	whose
Obj.	whom

§74. *RELATIVE PRONOUNS* connect their clauses to other parts of the sentence. They are sometimes called *CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS*. They are, **WHO**, **WHICH**, **WHAT** and **THAT**.

Note.—**COMPOUND RELATIVES** are formed by adding *ever* or *soever* to the simple relatives.

§75. Remember that **WHO** is always the *Nominative*, and **WHOM** the *Objective*, form, whether *Interrogative* or *Relative*. Thus, in speaking or writing, you use the correct form, not merely “because it sounds right,” but because you know which is right, and why it is right.

Examples.—**Whom** do you see? **Whom** is Object Complement of see. Therefore it is Objective Case and the correct form is **whom**.

She is a girl **who** will succeed. **Who** is subject of **will succeed**. Therefore it is Nominative Case and the correct form is **who**.

This man, **whom** you suspect, is innocent. What case is **whom**? Why? Then what is the correct form?

§76. The **ANTECEDENT** of a pronoun is the noun instead of which it is used.

Examples.—The picture that we saw was beautiful.

He is a gentleman, who may be trusted.

§77. **RULE.** A Pronoun has the same Person, Gender and Number as its Antecedent.

Note.—This rule must be always remembered in parsing relative pronouns especially, as it often is the only way of telling their person, gender and number.

§78. **ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS** are words used as pronouns, which usually are used as adjectives.

Notes.—The most common are:

(a) **DEMONSTRATIVES**,—*this* and *that*, (plurals, *these* and *those*).

(b) **INDEFINITE ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS**,—*all*, *any*, *each*, *either*, *many*, *none*, *another*, *some*, *such*, etc.

§79. Analyze the following sentences, and then parse the pronouns:

- a. They that seek me early shall find me.
- b. Who are you that come in the night?
- c. We love what is right.
- d. None whom we then saw, now live.
- e. Whose book is this?
- f. Each went into his own house.
- g. People often dislike those whom they have injured.

Note.—c. The clause, *what is right*, is object complement. You may say that the antecedent of *what* is implied in the whole clause.

§80. PARSE all the pronouns in sections 36, 37 and 39.

§81. EXERCISE. Write the correct form of pronouns in each blank in the following sentences; and give the reason for your choice of case form:

- a. — are you looking for? (who or whom).
- b. — are you trying to find?
- c. He is a man — the king delights to honor.
- d. — do I hear at the door?
- e. It is — (I or me).
- f. There are many weak people — (who or whom) we should pity.
- g. I thought that it was — (she or her).
- h. — (who or whom) do you think it is?
- i. James acknowledged that it was — (he or him) who broke the window.
- j. The teacher knew he was an honest boy, — she could trust.

Note.—(e) See §14.

§82. An ADJECTIVE (Latin “ad,” meaning “to,” and “jactum,” meaning “thrown”) is a word used to modify a noun (or, sometimes, a pronoun).

§83. *There are many CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES, such as, DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES, PROPER ADJECTIVES, ARTICLES, NUMERALS, and PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.*

§84. **PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES** are words used as adjectives, which often or usually are used as pronouns.

Examples.—Which man; whatever thing.

§85. **NUMERAL ADJECTIVES** express numbers.

Examples.—three, third, triple.

§86. The **ARTICLES** are **A**, **AN** and **THE**.

THE is *DEFINITE*,—a weakened form of *that*.

A (*AN* before a vowel sound) is *INDEFINITE*,—a weakened form of *one*.

§87. **PROPER ADJECTIVES** are derived from proper nouns.

Examples.—American, Jeffersonian.

§88. **DESCRIPTIVE** (or **QUALIFYING**) **ADJECTIVES** express some quality of the noun modified.

Examples.—large, rich.

§89. **COMPARISON** is a distinction in some adjectives (and in some adverbs), which shows the **DEGREE** of the quality.

§90. There are three DEGREES of COMPARISON, — POSITIVE, COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE. The POSITIVE DEGREE simply shows the quality. The COMPARATIVE DEGREE shows more (or less) of the quality. The SUPERLATIVE DEGREE shows the most (or least) of the quality

Examples.—The large apple.—Positive.

The larger apple (than the other one).
—Comparative.

The largest apple (of them all).—Superlative.

§91. *FORMS of COMPARISON.* Most short adjectives (and adverbs) form their Comparatives and Superlatives by adding ER and EST to the Positive. Most long adjectives (and adverbs) form their Comparatives and Superlatives by prefixing MORE and MOST to the Positive. Some adjectives (and adverbs) are compared irregularly.

Examples.—

<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Super.</i>
<i>brave</i>	<i>brave r</i>	<i>brave st</i>
<i>beautiful</i>	<i>more beautiful</i>	<i>most beautiful</i>
<i>bad</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>

Note.—Observe that final *e* is dropped when a syllable beginning with *e* is added. Why, do you think?

§92. COMPARE all of the following adjectives that can be compared:

small, happy, late, ambitious, infinite, useful, healthy, good, much, many.

Note.—Observe the spelling of comparatives and superlatives whose positives end in *y*. State just what change in spelling occurs.

§93. CAUTION. *Always use the comparative (not superlative) degree in comparing two persons or things.*

Examples.—John is the **stronger** of the two boys
(not **strongest**).

Which is the **better** way? (not **best**
of two).

§94. Parse the adjectives in sections 25, 26 and 27.

Following is a model:

“This apple is larger than that.” LARGER is a *descriptive adjective*. *Pos.* LARGE, *Comp.* LARGER, *Super.* LARGEST. *It is in the comparative degree, and modifies APPLE as an attribute complement.*

§95. An ADVERB (Latin “ad,” meaning “to,” and “verbum,” meaning “verb”) is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

§96. CLASSES OF ADVERBS. ADVERBS OF TIME show WHEN; ADVERBS OF PLACE show WHERE; ADVERBS OF MANNER show HOW; ADVERBS OF DEGREE show HOW MUCH, or to WHAT extent; MODAL ADVERBS modify the whole statement, and show that it is certain, doubtful or negative.

§97. *ADVERB FORMS.* Many adverbs have the same form as adjectives. Many adverbs are formed by adding *LY* to adjectives.

Note.—Observe and state the change when the adjective ends in *le* or *ic* or *y*; as, *simp(le)ly*, *authentic(al)ly*, *happ(y)ily*.

§98. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS. See §91. Compare the following adverbs:

fast, earnestly, beautifully, badly (or ill), well, much, little.

§99. *CAUTIONS.*

(a) *Place adverbs where they will most clearly show the meaning intended.*

Examples.—We (only) eat only three times a day.

Listen carefully to what he says (carefully).

(b) *Distinguish between adjectives and adverbs. Think whether the word modified is a noun or pronoun, or a verb, adjective or adverb.*

Examples.—"The boy looks sharp." **Sharp** modifies boy.

"The boy looks sharply." **Sharply** modifies looks.

§100. PARSE the Adverbs in the sentences that you have analyzed. Following is a model:

SOMETIMES *is an adverb of time. It is not compared. It modifies the verb* CALL.

§101. A CONJUNCTION (Latin "con," meaning "together," and "junctum," meaning "joined") is a word used to connect sentences or parts of sentences.

§102. Conjunctions are of TWO CLASSES:

A CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTION connects sentences, clauses, phrases or words of the same rank in the sentence.

Examples.—and, or.

A SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTION connects a clause with that on which it depends.

Examples.—when, where, unless, if.

§103. AN ADVERBIAL CONJUNCTION is a word used as a subordinate conjunction, which is usually or often used as an adverb.

Examples.—when, where.

§104. A CORRELATIVE is two or more words used as a single conjunction.

Examples.—either—or, neither—nor.

§105. PARSE the Conjunctions in the sentences that you have analyzed. Following is a model:

THAT is a subordinate conjunction, connecting the clause, THAT HE DID IT, with DENIED.

Note.—A Relative Pronoun connects a clause with that on which it depends, but we call it a *pronoun* rather than a conjunction because its *chief* office is to stand for a noun.

§106. A PREPOSITION (Latin “pre,” meaning “before,” and “positum,” meaning “placed”) is a word used to show the relation between its object and the word on which the phrase depends.

Examples.—with, from, by.

§107. PARSE the Prepositions in sections 29 and 39. Following is a model:

OF is a preposition, showing the relation between ACADIA and TALE.

Note.—In an Infinitive Phrase, *to* is really a preposition, but in parsing we take the whole phrase as a verb.

§108. An INTERJECTION (Latin “*inter*,” meaning “between” and “*jactum*,” meaning “thrown”) is a word “thrown in” to express strong or sudden feeling.

Examples.—Oh! Alas! It has no grammatical use in the sentence, and hence is not parsed.

§109. A VERB (Latin “*verbum*,” meaning “word,” the “chief word”) is a word used as a predicate, to express action or existence.

Examples.—I love. He lives.

§110. PERSON AND NUMBER in verbs are distinctions which correspond to the person and number of their subjects.

§111. INFLECTION of a verb is an orderly statement of the person and number forms.

Inflect the verb *love* by placing before it the first, the second, and the third personal pronouns singular, and then plural. Write this neatly, and *learn* it. Observe carefully and state how the third person singular is formed. In the same way inflect the verbs *advise*, *rule* and *hear*.

§112. *The verb AM (or BE) is irregular. It is inflected thus:*

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st.	<i>I AM</i>	<i>we ARE</i>
2nd.	<i>you ARE (thou ART)</i>	<i>you ARE</i>
3rd.	<i>he (she or it) IS</i>	<i>they ARE</i>

§113. **RULE.** A verb must have the same person and number as its subject.

§114. **CAUTION.** *Always be sure to use the correct person and number form, so that the verb will agree with its subject. Remember that s is the sign of the singular of a verb in the third person.*

When the subject is compound, think whether the meaning makes it really singular or plural.

Thus: A boy and a girl (both) **sing**.

A boy or a girl (one of them) **sings**.

§115. **TENSE** is a distinction in verbs which shows the **TIME** of the action or existence, compared with the time of the statement.

§116. The **TENSES** are Present, Past, Future, (Present) Perfect, Past Perfect and Future Perfect.

§117. The PRESENT TENSE shows action or existence at the time of the statement.

Examples.—I love. He advises.

§118. The PAST TENSE shows action or existence before the time of the statement.

Examples.—I loved. He advised.

INFLECT the past tense of the verbs, *love, advise, rule, hear* and *be*.

§119. The FUTURE TENSE shows action or existence after the time of the statement.

Examples.—I shall love. He will advise.

INFLECT the future tense of *love, advise, rule, hear* and *be*. Be very careful, and do it as follows:

Singular.

Plural.

<i>I shall (or will) love</i>	<i>we shall (or will) love</i>
<i>you will (or shall) love</i>	<i>you will (or shall) love</i>
<i>he will (or shall) love</i>	<i>they will (or shall) love</i>

§120. The (PRESENT) PERFECT TENSE shows action or existence completed at the time of the statement.

Examples.—I have loved. He has advised.

INFLECT the perfect tense of *love, advise, rule, hear* and *be*.

§121. The **PAST PERFECT TENSE** shows action or existence completed at a time before the time of the statement.

Examples.—I had loved. He had advised.

INFLECT the past perfect tense of *love, advise, rule, hear* and *be*.

§122. The **FUTURE PERFECT TENSE** shows action or existence to be completed at a time after the time of the statement.

Examples.—I shall have loved. He will have advised

INFLECT the future perfect tense of the verbs *love, etc.*

§123. **AUXILIARIES** are verbs that are used to make certain forms for other verbs.

The common auxiliaries are, SHALL, WILL, BE, DO, HAVE, MAY, CAN, and MUST.

Note.—*Be, do* and *have* are not always auxiliaries.

§124. **TENSE FORMS.** *Observe and remember that the different tenses are distinguished by the following forms:*

PRESENT, by the simple form of the verb.

PAST, regularly by ED added to the present. (Final E is dropped before ED.)

FUTURE, by the auxiliary *SHALL* or *WILL*.

PERFECT TENSES, by the auxiliary *HAVE*, in its present, past and future to make the *Pres. Perfect*, *Past Perfect*, and *Fut. Perfect*.

§125. **MODE** is a distinction in verbs, which shows the manner of the statement. The modes are, **INDICATIVE IMPERATIVE, POTENTIAL, SUBJUNCTIVE, INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES.**

§126. The **INDICATIVE MODE** shows the statement as a fact.

Examples.—The king rules. Has the king ruled?

§127. The **IMPERATIVE MODE** shows the statement as a command or entreaty.

Examples.—Rule. Be ye ruled.

§128. The **POTENTIAL MODE** shows the statement as a possibility or duty.

It is formed by using the auxiliaries MAY, CAN, and MUST. It is an almost useless distinction, and may be omitted

Examples.—He can rule. You may go.

§129. The SUBJUNCTIVE MODE shows the statement as a condition, doubtfully, or contrary to fact. It has some peculiar forms, which should be used with much care.

Examples.—If he were here, he would speak.

Should it rain, the grass would grow.

§130. The INFINITIVE merely names the action or existence.

Hence it is not really a verb, but is a verbal noun. (See §45.) The preposition TO usually precedes the noun, forming an Infinitive phrase, which may be called simply an Infinitive.

Examples.—To love, to advise, to have lived.

§131. The PARTICIPLES are verbal adjectives. The Present Participle is formed by adding “ing,” and the Past Participle regularly by adding “ed” to the simple verb (dropping final e).

Examples.—lov(e) ing, lov(e) ed, hearing, heard.

Note.—The FORM of the Present Participle is sometimes used as a verbal noun. Do not confuse it with the true Participle, which is an adjective.

Example.—Drawing is a pretty exercise.

§132. TRANSITIVE and INTRANSITIVE VERBS. A TRANSITIVE VERB is one that has an object complement. An INTRANSITIVE VERB is one that does not have an object complement.

Note.—Most Transitive Verbs may be used intransitively in a sentence.

Example.—The dogs *hear* the sound. *Hear* is transitive. Dogs *hear*, *i. e.* Dogs have the sense of hearing. *Hear* is intransitive.

§133. VOICE is a distinction in transitive verbs, which shows whether the person or thing named as the subject is represented as acting or as acted on. A verb in the ACTIVE VOICE represents the subject as acting. A verb in the PASSIVE VOICE represents the subject as acted on.

Examples.—Gertrude loves her kitten. (Active.)

The kitten is loved by Gertrude. (Passive.)

Note.—The object complement of the active voice becomes the subject when the verb is used in the passive voice.

§134. *The PASSIVE FORMS of a verb are made by placing the proper forms of the auxiliary BE, before the past participle of the verb.*

Examples.—I am advised. He was loved. The English have been ruled by Victoria.

INFLECT the passive voice of the verbs *love, advise, rule* and *hear*, in the six tenses of the Indicative, and give the Imperative, the Infinitive, and the Participles.

Note.—The inflection in order of all the tenses of all the modes in both voices, is called the CONJUGATION of a verb.

§135. *The PROGRESSIVE FORMS of a verb are made by placing the proper forms of the auxiliary BE, before the present participle of the verb.*

Examples.—I am advising. He was ruling. To be loving.

§136. *The EMPHATIC FORMS of a verb are made by placing the proper forms of the auxiliary DO, before the present form of the verb.*

Examples.—I do love. He did hear.

§137. *The INTERROGATIVE FORMS of a verb are made by placing the subject between the auxiliary and the rest of the verb.*

Examples.—Is he loved? Was he heard? Do they rule?

§138. The **PRINCIPAL PARTS OF A VERB**, are the Present Indicative, the Past Indicative and the Past Participle.

Note.—All the forms of all verbs are made from these in the same way. Hence it is necessary to know the Principal Parts of any verb before we can be sure of using it correctly in all forms.

§139. A **REGULAR VERB** forms its Past Indicative and Past Participle by adding “ed” to the present (dropping final “e” before the “ed”).

Example.—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
<i>walk</i>	<i>walked</i>	<i>walked</i>
<i>love</i>	<i>lov(e) ed</i>	<i>lov(e) ed</i>

§140. An **IRREGULAR VERB** does not form its Past Indic. and Past Part. by adding “ed” to the present.

Examples.—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
<i>see</i>	<i>saw</i>	<i>seen</i>
<i>go</i>	<i>went</i>	<i>gone</i>
<i>lie (recline)</i>	<i>lay</i>	<i>lain</i>

Give the Principal Parts of many verbs, stating whether they are regular or irregular. You can usually *think* what they are, thus:

Present. (I) **ride** (to-day).

Past. (I) **rode** (yesterday).

Past Part. (I have) **ridden** (many times in the past).

§141. PARSE the verbs in sections 7, 25, etc. Following is a good order:

Class—Regular or Irregular.

Principal Parts.

Kind—Transitive or Intransitive.

Voice (if Transitive).

Tense.

Mode.

Inflect.

Person and Number.

Agreement (§113).

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